THE GLEANER;

OR,

MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

No. 3. *For November*, 1808. VOL. 1.

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STACY POTTS, JUN. *Editor.*

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The Public

Have now had an opportunity of judging of the merits of the Gleaner. If its plan and execution, thus far, receive the approbation of our Subsrcibers, we trust they will take every opportunity to enlarge its circulation. The Editor assures them he will make the work as much better *as he can, and he ventures to promise that it shall not, so long as he continues to manage it, ever be* worse.

Our correspondents are respectable in numbers and increasing.— Several gentlemen of acknowledged talents *have already given the aid of their* pens *to the undertaking, and we expect others will follow the example.*

If a few of abundant wealth *(gentlemen or ladies) would assist us in the* financial *department, we should have a well grounded confidence in the usefulness and permanency of our Magazine.*

☞ *Several essays intended for this number have been postponed for want of room.*

THE GLEANER;

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For the Gleaner.

Are not the Banks in the United States too numerous—and should they not be prevented from issuing notes to a greater amount, than that of the coined specie in their funds?

IN speaking of this question, frequent reference must be made to the influence which commerce has on money. It will therefore promote conciseness and perspicuity, to endeavour the previous establishment of two important and fundamental propositions. The first is—

If a commercial nation has but a small quantity of circulating money, compared with those nations with which it trades, that quantity must soon increase.

As the quantity of circulating money is small, money will be dear, and articles of manufacture and the products of the earth, will be cheap. Such a nation can sell their merchandize at every foreign market for great profit, and yet undersell all other nations. Their goods, although sold at a price which to them will be high, will always be preferred to those of any other nation, on account of their cheapness. They will always find a ready market for any articles of commerce, while the goods of other nations will remain on hand. This must turn the balance of trade greatly in their favour, and cannot fail soon to replenish their empty coffers.

For illustration—suppose that Great Britain and the United States are two rival commercial nations. And suppose also that the United States, in proportion to their inhabitants, have but half as much circulating money as Great Britain. It is manifest that all manufactures, for instance hats, will cost Britain just twice as much as the same manufacture will cost this country. Let the price of a hat in London be $8; in this country it will be 4. Now suppose a ship to sail from London and another from New-York to a foreign market freighted with hats. The English owners could not sell theirs at less than $9, while the Americans could sell theirs at $6. But in such case they would demand and would obtain $8, i. e. they would undersell the English and gain 100 per cent. Such enormous profit would afford vast encouragement to the manufacture of hats in this country and foreign markets would be loaded with American manufactures.

It is evident that what has been said of hats, is applicable to all kinds of manufactures and to all the produce of the sea, the forest, and of agriculture. The balance of trade, in the case supposed, being greatly in our favour, the quantity of money would quickly increase in this country. But the increase of our money would gradually increase our own costs by increasing the price of labour and materials, and the profit at foreign markets would gradually diminish. During all this time England, on account of the dearness of the first cost of their articles, would not sell a single cent's worth. And she could not sell any until we should be no longer able to undersell them; and this could never happen until the quantity of money in this country would equal that in Great Britain. These remarks will apply to all countries that have commercial intercourse. Money, like water, it has been observed, cannot be raised above its natural level; and the circulating money of all commercial countries must in all be equal in proportion to their population.

The proposition attempted to be established by the preceding reasoning does not rest on that alone. It is amply confirmed by experience. At the end of the fifteenth century money was far scarcer than at present, as Europe had not yet been enriched by the mines of America. Yet the rapacity of Henry VII. of England amassed nearly three million sterling without diminishing the circulating money of England. How can this be explained without admitting the proposition before stated? England was then commercial. The scarcity of money made merchandize cheap and enabled the people to undersell other trading nations. The balance of trade was all in their favour, and thus the people of England had (as it were) restored to them, the riches that were squeezed from them by a tyrant. Henry did not take money from his own subjects only, for in the event it was taken from the whole commercial world.—It may be remarked also that some time after this, the small canton of Berne amassed near two million sterling without lessening the circulating money of the country.

The second of the fundamental propositions, before alluded to, is in a measure proved by the preceding.

If a commercial nation has a great quantity of circulating money, compared with those nations with which it trades, that quantity must soon diminish. For money being plenty it will lose much of its value; and the price of merchandize will be enhanced. The price of labour will be increased; the produce of the earth and all articles of commerce will be raised in value. As every article which such a nation has for sale costs them dearer than the same articles do other nations, they of course cannot afford to sell them for the same price that other nations can. And therefore they will not be able to sell them at all.

To illustrate this—let us again suppose England to have a much greater quantity of circulating money than other commercial nations. All the articles shipped from England will cost her much more than the same articles do other trading countries. In order to gain any thing England must get a much higher price for her goods than other nations do. But can she do this? Would foreign merchants give her a high price for the same goods which they could procure from other nations at a low price? In the case supposed every commercial country having less money than England would undersell her, and consequently she would cease to find any market for her goods. Her exportation would cease, while her importation would continue. But importation of goods without exportation must soon drain a nation of its money.—The case supposed of England will apply to any commercial country having much more circulating money than its neighbours. It shows that money among trading nations always will and must be at a level, and that one country cannot long continue to have more than those it trades with.

The preceding suppositions and reasoning will vary a little from actual fact; because all nations do not rival each other in every article of commerce. Almost every nation has some exclusive manufacture or commodity for which it can always get a price with reasonable profit, notwithstanding its having more circulating money than other nations. But this can scarcely be said to break the generality of the theory that has been laid down; nor does it invalidate the arguments to be drawn from that theory.

This second proposition, like the preceding, does not lean solely on the foregoing reasoning. It is also abundantly confirmed by experience. The immense treasures collected by Henry VII. of England were profusely scattered by his prodigal successor. This free distribution of wealth greatly increased the quantity of circulating money in the kingdom; and if the second proposition be true, we might *a priori*, infer that commerce did not flourish as became a growing nation during the reign of Henry VIII. What is the fact? We are informed by the historian of England that there was actually a decay of commerce and industry in the reign of this king.—It is also confirmed by the history of the territories of the Pope. Almost all the wealth of Europe by a thousand channels flowed into the papal kingdoms, and yet they are, and always have been, the poorest of the Italian States.—Spain furnishes a further confirmation of the second yroposition. Whence comes it that Spain is perhaps the poorest country of Europe? Why has she not been enriched by the mines of Mexico and Peru? And why have manufactures, agriculture, and commerce, almost perished in that country of haughtiness? The preceding reasoning contains the answer. The influx of American gold raised the price of all articles of merchandize and

thus shut them out from all foreign markets. They continued to import, while all exportation, except that of gold and silver, had ceased. Their own manufactures fell into disuse even among themselves; for who would give an enormous price for an article that might be had for a far less sum across the Pyrenees? The same cause enhanced the price of the produce of the soil, and brought agriculture into disrepute.

The artificial increase of money in the United States, by banks, has not prevented the balance of trade being always in our favour. This is owing to the circumstance of a great part of our commercial revenue arising from the carrying trade; and because America has so many commodities exclusive of other nations, which they cannot supply. But that they have injured the profits of our trade appears to be an irresistible conclusion, from the foregoing current of argumentation.

I come now more immediately to the subject, and from these two propositions will endeavour to draw two or three inferences respecting banks. Bank directors commonly issue bills to twice or triple the amount of the specie deposited in their funds. It is an easy inference from the second proposition that banks so conducted must diminish the specie of the country. They increase the circulating money and therefore raise the price of labour and of every kind of merchandize. This diminishes our profits at foreign markets and necessarily produces a stagnation, or at least diminishes the vigour, of commerce. As a commercial nation cannot long have more than its proportionate share of money, the overplus produced by the addition of bank bills to the specie must be drained off. And as none but specie is accepted by foreigners, this overplus must be taken from the specie. Suppose the circulating money in this country to be sufficient (as it certainly is) to fill the channel of trade and to serve every purpose of intercourse and exchange. Suppose too that a bank should be founded having specie to the amount of $ 200,000 and should issue notes to the value of a million of dollars. Then the channel of trade being full, the surplus of $ 800,000 could not enter it unless by displacing an equal quantity of specie. And this overplus of $ 800,000, if the second proposition be true, must go (nearly all) into neighbouring commercial countries, in order to reduce the circulating money of the commercial world to a level.—Dr. Adam Smith admits that in such case the institution of the bank would in reality remove $ 800,000 of specie and draw it off from employment in commerce. But he says it would not go into foreign countries, because it might be employed in purchasing tools and materials for manufacturers. Is not this the same as employing it in trade? Even if we suppose that as soon as a bank is instituted, the overplus of the bills issued above the specie in the funds is given to poor manufacturers, still it would go abroad to foreign commercial nations. For although it be given to poor tradesmen in the country, it increases the quantity of circulating money; and then according to the second proposition it must drive nearly as much specie as the overplus of notes amounts to, into foreign countries.

That the banking system as conducted in England and in the United States diminishes the specie is (if possible) farther confirmed by experience. Before the union of Scotland and England banks were unknown

in the former country. At the union Scotland had a million of circulating specie. After the union banks became numerous and in fifty years Scotland had but one third of a million, although during that time she had increased greatly in commerce and agriculture. Again—France before the revolution had twenty-four million inhabitants and ninety-one and a half million sterling of specie. Great Britain at the same time had twelve million inhabitants and only twenty million of specie. What is the cause of this vast difference? The answer is easy. France had but a few small banks before the revolution, for none were authorized by law. And again, it has been a subject of dispute whether England has more specie now than at the revolution of 1688. The immense sum of five hundred million sterling has been imported into Europe in the interval, and why then has not the specie of England increased in the same ratio with that of other nations? The reason is that the specie is shoved out of the country by the copious introduction of paper money. They send the specie to the East Indies, and instead of supplying its loss by drawing money from the whole commercial world in the way of trade *(see the first proposition)* they fill up the vacancy by bank bills.

The number of banks in the United States is about 75. Of these Connecticut has 7 and Massachusetts 23. This is doubtless the cause of the very remarkable scarcity of specie in the New-England states. It is pointedly remarked by Hume that as Lycurgus wished to banish gold and silver from his commonwealth, it is a pity he did not think of the institution of banks which would have done it effectually. The United States have nearly twenty million of dollars of circulating specie and perhaps fifty million of paper currency. If all the banks in the United States were abolished it is inferable, especially from the first proposition, that in no very long time the greater part of the current paper would be converted into specie by reason of our commerce. Although such a revolution in money would be possible, it would certainly be highly impolitic to produce it. Every government should, if possible, prevent a great diminution of the current medium as well as a great increase of it, unless it arises from the profits of trade. For as a sudden increase, at first stimulates and then quenches industry and enterprize; so a sudden diminution is a terrible shock to industry, a shock of which it will recover in time but which can never benefit it.

As to the dealings which a people have with one another in their own country it does not much signify what is their common medium of exchange. If a nation is not commercial and has no foreign dealings of any kind it is little matter (except that paper is easier of transportation than metals) whether their circulating medium be gold, or iron, or paper. But it is always beneficial for a nation to abound in specie on account of transactions out of the realm. As in the purchase of territory, vessels, &c. from other countries—in wars conducted abroad—in travelling in foreign countries—in subsidizing foreign troops. France, it is said, was formerly able to support twice as many troops abroad as England could do for the same expense. Even in the internal affairs of a nation there is one case where specie is much preferable to bank bills. In case of a civil war, or an invasion, paper money might be nearly useless, and great numbers would be ruined by the destruction or failure of banks.

The preceding reasoning against or objections to banks, do not apply to those which have in their funds specie to the full amount of the

notes issued. For banks of that kind do not diminish the specie, provided it be actual coin which is deposited in the funds. If a bank takes in a million of real coin and issues notes only to the same amount no addition is made to the circulating money. But banks of this kind scarcely exist. Banking companies always issue notes to a greater, perhaps double or treble the amount of their funds. In England the deposits in some banks (according to Dr. A. Smith) are no more than a fourth or a fifth of the notes issued. Besides almost all banks practice a deception; instead of depositing real coin, they only deposit the credit of wealthy men. This, it is true, answers the purposes of trade and makes the reputation of the bank as good as if they had coin to the full value of their notes; but as they take in no money they increase the circulating money of the country as much as if they would pour out their bills without any fund whatever. If the United States had but one large bank for each state, whose funds in real coin should equal the notes they issue, their effect might be good. We would retain our proper quantity of money in specie, and would still have the benefit of the easy transportation of bank notes. In times of war, or when public exigences would require it, government might apply to some of these funds to replenish its treasury, and could afterwards replace the sum borrowed as fit occasions would offer.

Banks are necessary, and perhaps their chief utility consists in their facilitating the conveyance of money. It is frequently said that they are necessary to trade—that they enable merchants to discount their notes, without which commerce could not be conveniently conducted. This may be all true; but is it a sufficient reason for the establishment of so many, and such extensive, and such ill-managed banks as have inundated the country with paper money and swept away the gold and silver? If there must be so many banks for merchants, why cannot four-fifths of them be confined to merchants alone and be mere offices of discount? Commerce, until lately, used to be conducted in France without the distribution of the bank notes among the people generally.

There is another apology which is sometimes advanced for the establishment of new banks in this state. It is said, that as the circulating money in a country must be at a level, if the neighbouring states increase their banks, we will be compelled to take their notes, unless we shove them back by notes of our own. It is true this is one mode of repelling an invasion of paper money from our sister states; but there certainly is another. The passing of any bills of another state below 5, or 10, or 20 dollars, could be prohibited by the Legislature.

As a recapitulation of the whole, it may be observed that the chief injuries which ensue from numerous ill-managed banks are, 1. The raised price of labour and merchandize, and the consequent stagnation of commerce. 2. The scarcity of specie which they produce. 3. The encouragement of villains, who counterfeit the notes; and 4. The trouble and vexation which is daily experienced by every one in receiving or passing suspicious notes. The chief benefits that would accrue from a few banks, with coin in their funds to the proper amount, are 1. The easy conveyance of money which they afford. 2. Being capable of furnishing government with supplies of specie whenever national embarrassments might require it.

PERIANDER.

SHIPWRECK OF CAPTAIN HENRY WILSON, ON THE PELEW ISLANDS.

(Continued from page 65.)

Matters proceeding in this favourable train, the captain, with great prudence, suggested the propriety of staving the liquor-casks on board the wreck, lest either the natives or the mariners, by indulging to excess, might be thrown off their guard, and give occasion to misunderstandings. This advice was instantly complied with, and nothing can give us a higher idea of the regular conduct of the crew, and the affection they bore their commander, than their readiness in giving up their favourite indulgence, which they did without a murmur.

In a short time after this, the English were informed that the king was coming: and in less than an hour, they saw a great number of canoes turning the point which formed the harbour. But the king stopped as soon as he got within the bay, and directed one squadron of the canoes, which were all armed, to retire to the back of the island; thinking, probably, that so great a number of armed people would create an alarm among the strangers.

He then advanced with the rest in great form, and with much parade, as far as the tide, which was then low, would permit them; and it was signified to Captain Wilson, by the king's brothers, that he should then go and meet him.

Accordingly, two of his people took him on their shoulders, and carried him through the water to the king's canoe, which he was requested to enter; and he and the king, whose name was Abba Thulle, embraced one another.

The captain then related the nature of their misfortune to Abba Thulle, by means of the two Malays, and repeated his request to be permitted to build a vessel to carry them home; and the king again, in a very courteous manner, gave his permission for them to build it, either where they were, or at the island where he resided; but recommended the latter; adding, that the island on which they had landed was unhealthy, which was the reason it was not inhabited; and that he apprehended they would be ill, when another wind began to blow, which he said would be in two moons. The captain informed him, that they had a person with them, whose business it was to cure diseases; and that it would be very inconvenient to them, if they removed farther from the wreck of their vessel, because they could not then procure from her, such things as they might want, without much trouble and loss of time. To these reasons the king assented; and making signs that he wished to land, the captain was carried on shore by

his people, and Abba Thulle, stepping into the water, followed him.

On his landing, he looked about him with a good deal of apparent suspicion, which, however, was soon removed. Raa Kook made up to him, and a sail being spread for him, agreeable to their practice, the chiefs of his company sat down, forming a square; and his other attendants, to the amount of about three hundred, inclosed them in a circle, squatting down at the same time in such a position, as that they could rise in a twinkling. Captain Wilson offered him some tea, which he did not seem to relish, and then made him a present of a piece of cloth, and some ribbons, which pleased him very much. He was quite naked, as well as his brothers, and without any bone on his wrist, or other ornament. He carried a hatchet of iron on his shoulder, which was so adapted to it, that it gave him no inconvenience.

Abba Thulle, the king, was introduced by Captain Wilson to the officers and all his men; and upon being told that Mr. Benger was second in command, he designated him the kickaray rupack, supposing Captain Wilson to be the king of some country; but when he was made to understand that he belonged to a mighty sovereign, and that he was only his captain, he very readily got hold of the word captain, by which name he constantly saluted him afterwards, and Mr. Benger, he called kickaray captain, as second in command.

The king then enquired for Captain Wilson's badge of supremacy, which put him to a stand. Luckily Mr. Benger slipped his ring into his hand, which being produced, and the manner of wearing it shown, pleased Abba Thulle not a little, as it carried some affinity to their own mark of dignity.

Raa Kook having, as before mentioned, examined every thing belonging to the English very minutely, took much pains in pointing them out to the king; they went through the tents, in which every thing surprised them; nor did the difference between the Chinese and English escape their notice. Raa Kook, at the same time, gave his brother to understand, that there were many different nations and classes of mankind on the earth; who were frequently at war with one another, as he often was with his neighbouring islanders. Abba Thulle appeared to despise the Chinese exceedingly, because they had no muskets.

But nothing seemed to strike Abba Thulle with more astonishment than the fire-arms, with which Raa Kook endeavoured to make him acquainted. He expressed much anxiety to see them used, which Captain Wilson ordered immediately to be done. He desired Mr. Benger to cause the sailors to go through their exercise drawn up on the sea beach, being then low water, while he explained their motions to the king. The men went through various evolutions, with great readiness, marching backwards and forwards, and concluded with three vollies, in different positions.

The astonishment and surprise of the natives, on hearing the report of the muskets, is not easily conceived; indeed, their hooting and halooing produced a noise little inferior to it. Captain Wilson judged it expedient to be guilty of a little profusion of their powder, on this occasion, in order to impress the minds of the natives with a more enlarged idea of the power of the English; a design which was fully answered by it. But still farther to shew them the effects of their fire-arms, Mr. Benger ordered one of the live doves, which they had, to be let loose, at which he fired, and immediately brought it down, with a leg and a wing broken. This surpassed every thing in their estimation; indeed, they now seemed to be lost in wonder and amazement.

Raa Kook was, by this time, pretty well acquainted with such articles as the English had about them, which he took great pains in pointing out to the king his brother; that which seemed principally to draw their notice was a grind-stone, which they turned round with great satisfaction, observing the effect it had upon pieces of iron; they also examined the tents, and the culinary utensils. But the dogs were the greatest fund of entertainment to them, with whose barking they were so much delighted, that they kept a continual uproar with them, and it was found necessary to confine them. The king examined the English as to their provisions, and was presented with a piece of ham and a live goose which had been saved.

Abba Thulle was vastly pleased with what he had seen, and proposed going away. This was notified to his attendants by a loud shriek from one of his officers, which gave not a little alarm to the English. It was instantaneously obeyed. They all rushed to their canoes with great alacrity, and the king with the greater part of the natives, took leave of them.

Raa Kook remained with the English all night, as did the king's son, and a few of their attendants. Captain Wilson ordered two tents to be pitched, one for the principal people, and the other for the commonalty. He continued himself with Raa Kook and his party, after the guard was set for some hours. The natives in the distant tent anxious to pay all attention to their visitors, prepared to sing a song, according to their country mode.

Their method of tuning their voices for this purpose, was attended with sounds so very dissonant and harsh, that the English thought they were beginning their war-hoop, or giving a signal to the king, and those with him, to attack them. Impressed with this idea, every man seized his musket and ran to the tent where Captain Wilson was, supposing him to be in the most imminent danger. But they were soon agreeably undeceived, and attended to the song, which was conducted in the following manner. A chief gave out the line, which a company next him took up and completed the verse. They continued their song some time, and made signs for our people to repay them in kind, which was

done by a lad, named Cobbledick, to their great satisfaction. The manner of this lad's singing was afterwards mentioned to the king, who, upon hearing him, was so much pleased, that he never met with him afterwards, without desiring him to sing, which, of course was complied with.

We come now to mention a circumstance which presents these natives of Pelew in a light that could not have been preconceived; a circumstance which discovers such nice feelings, as, on the one hand, displays human nature in a very pleasing attire, in this her native dress; while, on the other, it may put to blush enlightened nations and individuals. The English had no other means for again revisiting their native homes, but by constructing a small schooner; and for this purpose, had only a few instruments saved from the wreck. These they carefully concealed from the natives, who had shewn a particular attachment to iron, and instruments made of that metal. Accidentally, a chief had observed where they were, and requested a cutlass from Captain Wilson. The captain was loath to part with it, but fearing worse consequences in case he refused, thought it best to give it. As they went out of the tent, Raa Kook observed it with great displeasure, took it from him, and returned it to Captain Wilson.

In a few hours the Malay coming ashore, told the captain he had given great offence by offering a cutlass to an inferior officer, and neglecting the king and his brothers. In order to make up matters, Captain Wilson thought it best to present each of the king's brothers with some cloth and ribbons, which were very cooly received—they seemed to be unhappy. In the afternoon the king came round from the back part of the island, where he had spent the night, and Captain Wilson went out in the jolly-boat, with Tom Rose, to meet him. Now Abba Thulle, who had been so happy and pleased the day before, appeared with a gloomy reverse, and the poor Englishmen trembled in anticipating the dreadful effects of his displeasure, which they thought he was meditating. But the real cause of the uneasiness, which evidently depressed them all, was nothing more than a struggle in their own breasts, how they should ask a favour from strangers almost wholly in their own power, without having the appearance of a command. This marks a delicacy of mind, which ranks the natives of Pelew high in refinement.

It appeared, a neighbouring nation had injured them, and as they meant to attack them in battle in a few days, they very justly foresaw the advantages which would arise from the presence of a few of the English sailors with fire-arms. At length, with much evident confusion, Abba Thulle hinted it to Captain Wilson, who immediately assured him, he might at any time command his men,* who were entirely at his service. No sooner was this

* *Nothing but the peculiarity of Captain Wilson's situation, could justify him in joining in hostilities against a people who had done him no wrong; but circumstances influence the best of us.*

answer notified by the interpreter, than every countenance brightened up, and cordiality and happiness were restored. The king immediately dubbed the captain a brother rupack, entreated him to send some of his people to the part of the island where he lived, to carry him whatever provisions he needed, and concluded with assuring him, that the natives were entirely at his service, to assist in constructing their vessel, or any thing else in their power.

He immediately retired to the opposite side of the island, promising to return next morning for the men. Nor was the happy settlement of this affair less agreeable to the English than the natives. The fear of having incurred the displeasure of those, whose favour was so necessary, had distressed them not a little; and each strove to shew his zeal by wishing to be selected for the expedition proposed. At last, five young men were chosen and properly equipped. They were headed by Mr. Cummin, the third mate.

Meanwhile, every preparation was made to build a schooner, in which they might return to China; and the alacrity every person shewed to lend his assistance in this important business, was an earnest of their future success. Many necessaries were recovered from the wreck, and trees were felled to supply the rest.

On the 25th, the five English warriors returned in safety, after acquitting themselves to the satisfaction of the king, and putting his enemies to flight, by the effect and terror of their fire-arms. For this service, the Island of Oroolong, where they then resided, was given to the English by Abba Thulle.

On the 31st of August, Captain Wilson paid a visit to Pelew. Mr. Davis, Mr. Sharp, and Mr. Harry Wilson, accompanied the captain on this visit. The English went in their jolly-boat, attended by Raa Kook, and other natives in a canoe.

About one o'clock they reached Pelew, fired six muskets, and fixed their colours in the ground, at the end of the causeway where they landed. Raa Kook conducted them to a house, where they waited the arrival of Abba Thulle. Meantime the natives thronged into the house to have a view of the English, bringing along with them various refreshments and sweet meats. Presently, it was notified that the king was at hand, when, notwithstanding the multitude then present, the greatest silence prevailed. On his arrival, Captain Wilson embraced him as at first meeting, and presented him with a few trinkets, which were very agreeably received.

Abba Thulle now proposed to conduct them to the town, which is about a quarter of a mile from the landing-place, where they were. The English, in order to assume some little formality, carried their colours before them. They passed through a wood, and then came to a fine pavement or causeway. There are large broad stones laid in the middle for the ease of walking, and les-

ser ones on the sides. This led them to the town, where they were conducted to a large square pavement, surrounded by houses. In the centre stood a larger house than the rest, which was allotted to the English for their accommodation. In it there was a number of women, of a superior rank, being wives to the rupacks, or principal officers of state, who received them very politely, and presented them with cocoa-nuts and sweet drink, of which all partook.

In a short time, the king, after a suitable apology to Captain Wilson, retired to bathe, and a message was sent from the queen, expressing a wish to be favoured with the company of the English at her house. Thither they all repaired, and were seated in a little square before the house. It appeared that this was the principal wife of Abba Thulle, and great attention was paid to her by all. The king resided almost constantly at her house.—She appeared at the window, and, by means of Raa Kook, examined into the various peculiarities in the appearance of the English which struck her. She sent them a broiled pigeon, which is the greatest rarity the island produces, and is held in the highest estimation. It is unlawful for any but rupacks and their wives to taste them.

After satisfying her curiosity, they were conducted by the general to his house, where they met with a most gracious reception, and had an opportunity of observing the benevolent heart of this worthy man in domestic life. In his house they were treated with the greatest kindness, and with the most expressive tokens of real welcome; but what particularly warmed their hearts on the occasion, was the endearing behaviour of Raa Kook to his wife and children. These last he fondled on his knees, and caressed with all the genuine marks of parental affection. The night being now pretty far advanced, they retired to their house, where their friend the general spared no pains to render their accommodation comfortable. He procured plenty of mats for them to sleep on, kindled fires to defend them from the mosquitoes and damps, and ordered some of his own men to sleep at the other end, to protect them from any of the natives, who might be led to disturb them from motives of curiosity.—Next morning they were attended, as usual, by Raa Kook, and after walking about for some time, were ordered to attend the king to breakfast in the queen's house, where they had been the day before.

They were received with a peculiar etiquette, which was never afterwards practised. The house was all in one apartment, at the one end of which hung a screen of mats, which, when drawn up, discovered the king and queen seated. They breakfasted on yams and fish very agreeably. After breakfast, Mr. Sharp, the surgeon, accompanied by Mr. Davis, set out to visit a child of Arra Kooker's, which was sick. His house was about three miles

distant.—This gave them an opportunity of examining the country, which they had not before done. This visit was very acceptable, and the rupack thought he could not sufficiently repay them. Mr. Sharp examined the child's body, which was almost covered with ulcers, but could not prescribe any thing, having no medicines. He approved of the mode of cure they had adopted, which was chiefly fomentation. Arra Kooker then laded several servants with provisions, &c. in baskets, to be sent to the boats, and assured them, when they left the island, they should have his whole roost of tame pigeons. This, by the way, was the greatest compliment he could offer them, in his estimation; and sufficiently shews the uncommon gratitude with which his bosom was warmed.—Indeed, the readers will, on many occasions, have anticipated the remark, that the finer feelings and virtues which adorn humanity, shone in these natives in no common degree. They returned to Captain Wilson, at Pelew, the same evening.

The request which had been previously hinted by the king, was now formally made to Captain Wilson, by desire of a council of rupacks, that he would allow them ten men to accompany them to a second engagement at Artingall, which was most readily complied with. Captain Wilson mentioned, at the same time, that it would be obliging were the men detained as short time as possible, not to hinder the progress of their schooner. To this Abba Thulle most engagingly replied, "That it was not his wish to detain them longer than was absolutely necessary, but after doing him so much service, he wished to keep them a day or two to rejoice with him." The council had met in the forenoon on this business. Every rupack, or chief, was seated on a stone, that for the king being higher than the rest, and disputed from side to side as it happened, without any regular order of speakers. It appeared that every thing was decided by a majority, so that their government bears no small affinity to our own.

(To be continued.)

For the Gleaner.

The Lazy Preacher, No. 2.

"*He who talks nonsense says nothing.*"

SOCIETY is intended for the happiness and pleasure as well as the preservation of man, but into it a number of little evils have been introduced which render its designs, in some measure, abortive. One of those evils I have noticed in my first number, and shall now mention another, which, though it is not so injurious in its tendency, is still disagreeable, and sometimes productive of mischief.

A rational conversation, in a polite company, has always been considered as instructive and amusing; it is one proof of civilization, and a pleasure equal to almost any we partake of. But such a discourse is now frequently difficult to hear, owing to a set of people whom I style *incessant talkers*.—These gentry, generally, monopolize all the conversation and entertain their associates with a volubility of tongue quite astonishing. I shall first give some of the most conspicuous traits in their character before I proceed to make any observations concerning the effects of their behaviour, and leave my readers to draw their own conclusions from what I say upon the subject.

Persons habituated to incessant talking pay very little regard to the rules of politeness, but, without ceremony, interrupt any person speaking. They make no scruple, when entering a room full of company, immediately to break into the conversation with some *unmeaning* remark; and when they discover that the thread of discourse is broken, begin a display of loquacity as unentertaining as rediculous. The principal subjects they select for conversing upon are those that children would be most likely to choose for their amusement before a winter's fire. A long improbable story; a detail of antic capers cut by favourite domestic animals; to descant for hours upon their own ingenuity, virtue, and sensibility; to redicule others, and frequently to defame good characters with a blameable facility; such are the subjects they particularly delight in; and such the characteristic marks of *incessant talkers*.

In all companies there should be an attention paid to the forms of politeness; for without the ncessary observance of the common customs and restrictions in civil society—society becomes burdensome to itself and sickening to a feeling mind. What can be more agreeable to a person of taste than sociable company? Yet how disagreeable is it when proper regulations are neglected?—Even for one individual to take the liberty of interrupting another while speaking destroys its harmony; but for its topic of discourse to be changed by a new guest, purposely to introduce his own and take all the conversation to himself, is undoubtedly an act of impoliteness and an injury to the company, completely unpardonable.

There is no necessity why one or two persons should undertake to talk for a whole company. It ought to be recollected that every individual, at times, has a desire to speak; and it very seldom happens, even when our talkers are not present, that the company are silent for want of matter to keep their minds and tongues in action:—but on the contrary, they appear to enjoy themselves with equal hilarity and more satisfaction.

The next article that stands in my list against the credit of the talking gentry is, the subjects they appropriate for conversing upon, which are, too frequently, neither instructive nor amusing.—

We can derive little benefit from a long tedious story which perhaps has been told us over and over by the same person at least fifty times:—does it not fatigue the mind? will it not compel the best nature to become pevish? and does it not give a distaste to the society where such nonsense is made the principal topic of entertainment? certainly! then is society, in this case, prevented from answering its intended purpose, merely by that evil, *incessant talking*.

Upon the whole, it is an evidence of an imbecile mind, to disturb a polite company with long details of the *capers* cut by *brutes*, &c. Such trifling subjects ought to be avoided, not only for the *reputation* of the *relater*, but the feelings of the hearers.

FOR THE GLEANER.

ARE CAPITAL PUNISHMENTS EXPEDIENT?

Mr. EDITOR,

IN your Magazine for September, I was highly gratified by the perusal of an ingenious essay on capital punishments. It is a topic of the utmost importance, inasmuch as it comprises a problem, the right solution of which is not only interesting to the public at large, but to each particular individual. In a country whose most enviable distinction is, that the laws which govern the people are framed by the people themselves, and that the extreme cases in which alone those laws suppose life to be forfeitable, are to be ascertained by juries; of which juries almost every man at some period of his life may be required to form a part:—it is of peculiar advantage to circulate widely whatever may serve to enlighten the public mind. Thus only will her citizens, whether they act in the capacity of jurors or legislators, be able to perform their duties with faithfulness—and the worst of evils be avoided, that of entrusting the sword of justice into the hands of those who are ignorant on what occasions to spare, and in what cases it would be for the interest of society to strike.—It is by a course of long labour, of patient and repeated experiment, that any science arrives at perfection; and it unfortunately happens that the science of criminal law, involves in its theory too many of our strongest passions, to have been as yet considered with sufficient coolness, or to have been determined in general wholly on rational grounds. Whatever, therefore, may tend to throw sunshine on a subject hitherto so much enveloped in doubt and darkness, deserves our most serious attention; and he who, by exciting a spirit of enquiry promotes in any degree so desirable an end, deserves more of his country than the whole

host of party-writers, who disturb her internal peace, while they profess to have a single eye to her prosperity. Much, however, as I admire the elegance of Periander's style and the humanity of his sentiments, he must pardon me if I still remain unwilling to subscribe to their correctness. It would be needless to consume time in endeavouring to prove the right of nations to punish capitally. His doctrine has been so ably treated, and so incontrovertibly established by various authors, that there can but little more be said on the subject. It is indeed admitted by Periander himself—so that the only question for discussion is, "whether capital punishments are expedient?"

The idea that naturally suggests itself on first crossing the threshold of this subject, is the prevalence of capital punishments, in all ages, and among every civilized nation. The universal existance of a custom is *prima facie* evidence of its universal utility. For men by common and general consent would never adopt a custom which in its effects proved generally more productive of evil than of good. But it has been objected that this may be owing to the mere force of prejudice. That among a barbarous people insults and injuries were avenged by the immediate destruction of those by whom they were committed; and being thus in their ruder times, familiarized to the shedding of blood, nations, when they grew more civilized, neglected to enquire into the expediency of a practice, at once destructive and impolitic. To this it will be answered, that barbarous nations on the contrary have in general been extremely mild in their punishments. In the early ages of Greece the murderer was suffered to escape by paying a stipulated sum to the relations of the deceased,—or by absenting himself forever from his country. In later times, we learn from Tacitus, that the magistrate could oblige the relations of one murdered to accept of a present from the aggressor, or his relations, as a compensation for the injury,—and to drop all further prosecution of revenge. Hume also informs us, that this was the usage among the Anglo-Saxons, where the price of every man's life, or in other words his weregild, was fixed according to law in cases even of wilful murder. The Irish also, who never had any intercourse with the Germans, observed the same custom.

It was not therefore until nations arrived at some degree of civilization that the principles upon which the science of criminal law is founded, were distinctly understood. It was then agreed that the right which every man possesses in a state of nature, of being the avenger of his own wrongs, should be vested in the government. And government, thus appointed sole guardian of the lives of her subjects, conceived that no compensation to the relations of the deceased was a sufficient atonement for a crime that tends to destroy the very existence of political union. That vindictive penalties alone by the terror of example could effectu-

ally prevent the repetition of scenes which always originate from the deepest depravity of heart: and that apparent mercy to atrocious criminals, is in fact real cruelty to the public in general.—Hence it is that the usage of punishing capitally exists among all civilized nations. And although Catharine II, in her ukase proclaimed that punishment by death should no longer be permitted throughout her extensive dominions; Yet her successors were soon forced to relinquish the experiment as an innovation not only dangerous but impracticable. Let it however be distinctly understood that it is only in cases of murder that I advocate the doctrine of capital punishments. For weak must be the mind that could now believe, and savage the heart that would not shudder at the thought, of life's being the atonement for the violation of property. The severity with which trivial offences are punished in Europe is an eternal disgrace to her penal codes.—And a righteous Providence seems to have ordained, that those very offences shall multiply in proportion to the excess of their punishment: and that the more merciless man grows towards his brethren, the more shall his own tenure on property and existence be endangered.

It is an object of the first importance that different punishments should be allotted to different crimes. In those countries where robbers and murderers, if taken, share the same fate, robbery is seldom committed without murder. The punishment in both cases being alike, the robber feels no hesitation in pursuing that method, to perpetrate his designs, which offers him the surest means of escaping detection. A lifeless corpse may easily be concealed and can never rise up in judgement, before an earthly tribunal, against its destroyer. If, for the same reason, imprisonment instead of death were awarded, as the punishment of murder, it would confound a distinction equally necessary to be preserved in all criminal codes. In the eyes of the profligate, it is the penalty that awaits the perpetration of a crime, and not the peculiar malignity of the crime itself, that can preserve any restraint upon their actions. If they perceived no difference, except with regard to its duration, in the punishment of crimes of the most destructive nature—and of those which are but of trival injury in their consequences to the public, they would feel no scruples in acting, no matter how atrociously, provided their own plans proved thereby successful—and their own safety was most effectually secured. If, on the other hand, a scale be formed in which punishment by a steady and measured step, ascends with the various grades of ascending criminality—if in proportion as the heart blackens, the penalties that await the indulgence of its dictates become more dreadful, then ere he arrive at the summit of guilt, will the resolution of the boldest villain be daunted. Let then the punishment of death stand apart, as an awful beacon, to warn mankind against the perpetration of that

crime whose injuries alone are irrepairable. Thus in time may that desirable system of jurisprudence be attained, in which prevention almost supercedes the necessity of punishment, and the well applied example of one suffering villain, prove perhaps the means of saving many valuable lives from destruction.

It has however been objected that perpetual confinement would in reality prove a severer punishment than death. But what would be the most probable sentiments with regard to this subject, of the wretch, who was only to be detered from guilt, through the consequences that might result from its detection. The love of life is a principle much more powerful in the generality of mankind than the love of liberty. The punishment therefore that consigned him to the dungeon would not in idea appear so severe, as that which was to be endured from the halter, supposing a choice of either of the two were offered to a hardened offender. If there be any principle in the human breast, that prompts man to shun immediate suffering, although he may thereby incur the danger of future and more lasting torment—if there be any principle, that teaches him to prefer a protracted though miserable existence, to the shivering thought of a cruel and ignominious death: then would there be no hesitation in his choice. Hope would persuade him, that were even the recesses of a prison to become his abode, yet need he not despair;—were chains and fetters to become his portion, yet in the revolution of time—art, or accident, might furnish him with an opportunity to escape. Not so when the prospect of death flashes before his mind. No flattering vision then promises that he can ever return from the confines of the tomb. But his soul shrinks with horror when contemplating even in idea, a punishment whose pangs are excruciating in this, and may only prove the prelude to torments eternal in the world to come.

Admitting then that the punishment of perpetual imprisonment would prove more severe than that of death, it would never be made equally efficacious in preventing the repetition of those offences on account of which it was inflicted. The trial of a criminal whose punishment was to be in no wise uncommon, would seldom excite general curiosity. When convicted, few would feel their interest sufficiently awakened to observe with much attention the completion of his sentence. He would be conducted to his dungeon almost without a witness—and the remembrance of his fate would soon be obliterated. Of what avail then would it be to society were every fiend of torment to await him there. It is not the recesses of a prison that the unfleged villain loves to frequent. The clank of fetters and the groans of despair, have no alurements for him. Were his precursor in iniquity wasting away under the pressure of anguish and remorse, an hundred-fold more bitter than death, he would travel on in the same footsteps—unwarned and unconcerned, until

after a course of similar crimes, he was overtaken by a similar fate.

Is it thus when a cirminal is tried for his life? Who that ever entered a court of law on an occasion of this kind, but must have observed what general concern is created by such an event.—How great a croud press round the bar of justice! With what interest do they await the issue of the trial! And how deep an impression is left on their minds, when they observe the sure, though often unexpected, means by which Providence often arrests the guilty in their career. The sentence too, if pronounced in a proper manner, how solemn! Whose every word sinks cold and heavy on the heart of sensibility: as the sound of the earth that strikes on the coffin, and fills up the grave in which the remains of a departed fellow mortal are to sleep forever.—But there remains a scene if possible still more impressive!—The report of his intended execution spreads over the whole country. Thousands of both sexes and of every age assemble at the appointed hour. It is then, while their hearts are throbbing wildly with dismay and anxiety, that a breathless multitude witness the awful spectacle, of man inflicting the delegated vengeance of heaven on the person of his guilty brother. A spectacle in which the stern sentiment of retributive justice, robs the suffering wretch of even that portion of commisseration, which the throes of expiring nature so seldom fail to excite—but leaves him to perish unwept, unlamented, a woeful example of death rendered doubly bitter by ignominy and merited disgrace. Could any scene be imagined more extensively and more permanently beneficial than this? To a heart as yet unsullied with a crime, it would display the fatal consequences that attend a dereliction from virtue. The novice, who had made but a few timorous essays in guilt, it would warn, in a voice of thunder, to return to the paths of rectitude. And could even the veteran in iniquity, behold it without emotion? No, his hair would stiffen, and his blood curdle, at the sight of sufferings that might soon be his own:—and although a total reformation of his conduct might not be possible, yet would he avoid, like the lightning of heaven, the perpetration of a deed which he saw so dreadfully rewarded.

But why hurry a wretch all crimsoned with iniquity into the presence of his offended Maker, ere he has had time to make his peace by repentance? This argument clothed as it is, in the imposing garb of humanity, will be found perhaps on examination more specious than solid. The prospect of immediate death must alarm the conscience of the most hardened villain. However he may affect to conceal the emotion, he will startle when he beholds himself on the brink of a tremendous eternity, whose torments, he has been taught to believe, will prove both endless and unabating. Under the impression of this horrible idea, no

other hope will remain, but that sincere and unfeigned contrition, will not be rejected by the father of all mercies. Full gladly then would he fly to that kind being who promised the joys of heaven, even unto the penitent malefactor on the cross; to implore his forgiveness—and to acquire by his intercession, a deliverance from that vengeance, by which he must otherwise be inevitably overwhelmed.

If, however, on the other hand, he has the prospect of a prolonged existence, he will not be anxious to hasten the hour of self condemnation. Few, whose lives have never been sullied with attrocious crimes—who have scarcely a compunction to expect when conscience poises the solemn balance, in which their merits and their faults are to be weighed; ever encourage her to perform the task, until they are thrown on the bed of death: what then can we expect from him, whose soul would be harrowed up by the remembrance of past enormities? Would he not rather steep in oblivion all the black deeds of former times; and, looking forward through the long vista of coming years, consider their uncertain boundary as time early enough for the infliction of the indispensable, though heart-rending penance, of prayer, humiliation, and remorse? Yes: he would rest in a security false yet flattering as the hectic's, whose eye glistens with the delusive beam of hope, and whose cheek glows with the fictitious rose of health, even until the moment when the hand of death consigns him to eternity. The first pang of conscience once stifled—and he would go on unwarned a second time, until the stroke of fate dismissed him to those regions within whose precincts mercy never is suffered to enter.

But there remains yet another consideration with regard to perpetual imprisonment, that must have some influence with the reflecting mind. Those who have attentively observed the opinions of mankind, even of that portion which inhabit Pennsylvania, must have remarked the extreme indignation they express, when a murderer, after trial, is permitted to escape with his life. They place no confidence in the argument, which would persuade them of the probability of reformation by labour and confinement. They conceive the walls of a dungeon as but feeble barriers, to secure them against the attempts of one, who, by destroying the life of a fellow creature, has evidenced a disposition inimical to the whole human race. Whether this be the voice of untutored reason—or whether it be the effect of a prejudice—so deeply woven in their natures as only to be eradicated after a long course of successful experiments, is not easily determined. But there may be serious doubts whether a prejudice, conducive as this evidently is to the welfare of society, ought lightly to be sacrificed on the altar of untried speculation. Whether also there may not be a principle hostile to the political liberties of a republic, in the doctrine of perpetual imprisonment,

would afford matter for reasonable doubt, and for serious discussion. At all events, as reparation to the state, for the loss of her murdered citizens, is impossible; the policy of burdening prisons, with wretches who would be ever on the watch to escape, and who on the first opportunity might repeat their crimes with exasperated malignancy, may fairly be called in question.

If therefore, in a country where there are no temptations to murder, but what originate from incurable wickedness of heart; where the law declares that it is only in such cases of hopeless depravity that punishment by death shall be inflicted; where a jury of freemen alone can declare in what cases those laws shall be executed; and where the supreme executive has the power of pardoning, if there exist even the slightest shadow of a doubt—if, after all these restrictions, some monster of iniquity is led to the gallows, loaded with the execrations of all who witnessed—all who heard of his deeds—does there exist any one who would step forward to plead for his total reprieve, and to rescue him from his richly merited doom? No: however afflicting the scene might be to the heart of sensibility he would resign him to his fate—and humbly implore that God, whose solemn mandates he had despised, to grant the sufferer that mercy, which it was out of the power of an earthly tribunal to bestow.

ADRIAN.

For the Gleaner.

The Grumbler, No. 2.

"GRATIFICATION," said the sage Nicumnonnocicus, "is the prime mover of all our actions; it is the great ruler of the earth whose orders all men obey; what," continues he, "avails all our laws of morality and laws of society to the contrary. Do we not daily see the powder-wig'd justice lay aside his conscience, to meet the gamester at the card-table; or desert his duties, to bet at a public horse-race: although he is sworn to see the laws faithfully executed against both." But says I, Nicumnonnocicus with all thy philosophy thou art still in an error; thou knowest not the nature of man, nor the cause of all his many works; thou art unacquainted that men look upon themselves as being weak in the paths of rectitude, and that they do not lay themselves out to refrain from vice all the days of their lives: for although it is considered unlawful to steal, are not men allowed to gratify this vein of desire upon the night of hollow-eve by changing the word *stealing* into *cabbaging*, and then ravaging the gardens of their neighbors? and is it not considered dishonorable to tell a lie upon every day of the year, save the first of April, and then is not the man esteemed wise who tells a false-

hood and he that believes him a fool? Say, sage Nicumnonnocicus, are not these things true? "'Tis too true," replies the philosopher. Well if so, says I, 'tis presumed I may continue. Our law-givers are allowed also times of sport to indulge themselves and revel in the gratification of gaming. And it must also be known unto thee, O great Nicumnonnocicus! that whatever action is done by way of sport, it is never considered by the transgressors as criminal. "Would to God," then cries Nicumnonnocicus, with a tone of voice that caused the China tea cups to ring upon the table, "would to God," says he, "when the time was allowed for making a sport of cabbage stealing, lying and gaming, that the world had allotted days for stealing horses and cows, breaking open houses and committing murder by way of sport, which would have saved many a poor fellow from twirling at the end of a halter. And again, says he, how comes it that gaming is allowable every night, whereas cabbaging and fool-making is in season but once a year." Ah! friend Nicumnonnocicus, says I, thou knowest that people of late have discovered a nack of stretching the laws of justice like a stocking; I confess gaming is practised a *little* oftener than is consistent with the exceptional rule of gratification; and so are the two others; for although they are considered lawful but once a year, yet they are put into practice every day: Moreover, continues I, this *moral elasticity* is applied to days of religious order with a wonderous deal of success; as the rites of Christmas, new-year, and such like days of devotion are of late stretched so as to embrace cock-fighting, drunkenness, nose-pulling, eye-gouging, skull-cracking, and a variety of other ingenious modern amusements.

GREGORY GRUNT.

For the Gleaner.

THE MODERATOR, No. 2.

"*Sport that wrinkled care derides*
"*And laughter holding both his sides.*" MILTON.

IN the great society of mankind, of which I have assumed the character of Moderator, there are many turbulent beings, which it will be my duty to take notice of, and if possible turn from the evil of their ways. With none of these I anticipate more trouble than the drunkard. Indeed, persons habituated to intemperance, so as to be almost continually in a state of intoxication, I despair of bringing to a sense of their folly; because, with them there is little or no time for the operations of reason, and they have long become callous to the compunctions of shame. We can neither laugh nor frown them into orderly behaviour.

Such will more properly come under the cognizance of the legislature, and I have thoughts of suggesting to the members of that body, with whom I hope to have some influence, at their next session, the necessity of passing a law on this subject. I would have the estates, of such as are known to be drunk more than three days in one week, seized for the use of their wives and children, or those to whom, by the laws of the commonwealth, the property ought to descend in case of the death of the incumbent, whom I would have sent to the house of employment, and there kept, under the guardianship of the steward, at some useful labour. By some plan of this kind, the family, of many an incorrigible vagrant, might be greatly benefited. For the present, however, I shall suffer these loathsome canker-worms of the community, to crawl on in their own wretchedness, with this single malediction, which they may hereafter hear more awfully pronounced against them—"depart from me ye cursed."

But there is another class of topers, not so far gone in vice; who are not entirely lost to all sense of decorum, and who, I flatter myself, will pay some attention to the orders of the Moderator. These are principally young men who consider it an insult to be called *drunkards;* and yet it is by no means a perversion of language to give them that appellation. Because they are not often seen staggering through the streets, or wallowing in the gutters, at *noon-day;* but keep their coats brushed and shew some regard for the company they mix with publicly, they think forsooth, their midnight revels may be tollerated, and pride themselves in the denomination of *good fellow.* I do not say that Lancaster abounds with persons of this description, more than any other town of the same population. For the character of my birth-place I should be loath to say so if I even thought it: yet truth compels me to admit, there is certainly *quantum sufficit.*

In one of my perambulations, not long since, I fell in with a company of these good-fellows, who it seems have formed a club, which meets very often, at a public house in this town. The objects of the association are said to be, to enliven the spirits and test the *spunk* of its members. A loud noise that I heard as I approached this house of pleasure induced me to go in. The club had been in session an hour or two, and were quite, as they expressed it, in *good glee.* There was Hugh Flip and Sam Simple, Jack Thoughtless, and four more who at this time I will not name. Indeed I would not have brought these three to the bar of the public on this occasion, but, having already spoken to them privately, with a view to "correct their procedure," I was treated with such disrespect, that I determined to hold them up for the finger of scorn to point at. I conjure others to take warning from this example. If I cannot convince *them*

of the impropriety of their behaviour, and how ridiculous it makes them appear, I will endeavour to describe it to the world, that others may be deterred from the like licentious folly. The ancient Spartans, we are told, used to intoxicate their slaves, in order that the youth of the city, seeing the absurdity of their conduct, might be disgusted at the inebriating draught.

Jack Thoughtless, from his position, at the head of the table, I discovered was acting president *pro tempore*, and to give the devil his due, he was certainly the best qualified, at this time, of the whole set, for the station; for either owing to the strength of his constitution or the thickness of his brain,

"——————— *his mien had not yet lost*
All its becoming beauty, nor appeared
Worse than a playman's fool's."

In his right hand he held an empty quart decanter (which he soon exchanged with the landlord for a full one) and, pointing to five uniform *mystic* characters scored on the partition, he informed me that five bottles had already been sacrificed to their rosy-faced big-bellied deity. The rest of the company sat facing each other on either side the table. But my attention was more particularly attracted to one young man who, I have since learned, was a newly admitted member and was just undergoing his inauguration. In order, I presume, to shew that he was no *slouch*, he surpassed all that I had ever seen in the contortions of his face. His eyes rolled wildly, and his head bobbed about like that of a French dancing master surrounded by twenty ladies. The pencil of Hogarth could not delineate a more laughable *caricature of a sober man.* I should most assuredly have pronounced him drunk, if I had not heard himself, and his companions, repeatedly aver, that he was only a little *gay.*

Not long after I entered a song was called for, and the president, thumping his fist upon the table, (by which he broke three glasses, upset the decanter and spilled about a pint of wine) bawled out, with a voice like Stentor's—a song from Mr. Simple—a song—Order, gentlemen, order. But they had too much spunk in them to obey the call, and, as if they supposed the president could not be heard, they all began to roar out, order, order. It was sometime, however, before any thing like order was produced. At length Mr. Simple thus proceeded:

Who would spend his time in thinking?
Thinking will but sour the mind;
Drown your cares, my boys, in drinking,
Be your books for bowls resign'd.

Come, kind landlord, give us plenty,
While we've money, let's have drink;
When we've drain'd our purses empty,
Then 'tis time to mope and think.

See the silly, slavish miser,
Heap on heaps his golden store;
But his son and heir, much wiser,
Nobly spends it all—and more.

Hark! I hear the death-bell tolling,
Has some grab-all soul gone hence?
In tartarean anguish rolling,
Let him hoard and count his pence:

While his hard-earn'd earthly treasure,
Left to some unthankful cub,
May, perhaps, advance our pleasure;
May increase our jolly club.

Then push round the wine, good-fellows,
Let not future ills annoy,
Whilst we keep in blast life's bellows,
Let us keep alive our joy.

While Sam was singing, another exchange of bottles passed between Thoughtless and the host; and in this transaction I noticed a circumstance, which has given me no little perplexity. As Mr. Tap (the landlord) received the empty bottle he added another score to the five upon the wall; as he handed in the full one he repeated the operation. Now, from what Jack had told me before, I had concluded each chalk represented a bottle, and that this was their mode of keeping the reckoning; but, from this observation, I was convinced of my mistake, at least in the excess above five. What use or rule tavernkeepers make of these marks I cannot divine, and for that reason I have called them mystic characters. All trades have their secrets. Now I am fond of unravelling any thing enigmatical, and when I get hold of a mystery like this, I give myself no rest until I come to some conclusion that satisfies me. In the present case I have puzzled myself with conjectures, and trimmed my midnight lamp meditating upon it. The solution of the first problem in fluxions, when I commenced the study of that science at school, did not give me more perplexity, than has this trifling affair, and after all, candour obliges me to confess, I do not yet comprehend it. When I applied, to my friend Richard Wheedle, for some information on the matter, I could easily perceive that he would not answer my enquiry with his usual perspicuity. Dick has kept a public house himself and is well acquainted with all the arcana of the craft. He says it is merely a way they have of ascertaining the amount of profits, and he added as he gave me this information, "there is cheating in all trades but ours, Quintin." From the veracity of my old acquaintance I have no rea-

son to doubt that the custom is perfectly harmless and simple when understood; but his last remark was singular and has increased my curiosity to know the truth. I am sure I never intimated that I supposed any thing dishonest in the profession: then why did he make the observation? We sometimes excite suspicion by the very pains we take to allay it. However I would not have Mr. Tap, or any other of his fraternity, to think that I accuse them of fraud. The anti-penurious disposition of the generality of these sorrow-doctors; the very liberal profits that custom and the laws permit them to take on the liquors they dispose of; and the benefit they must receive from the judicious exercise of their unquestioned right to what is called *brewing*, precludes every idea of the kind. He must be an antipode to the honest part of the world and a cheat by nature who, possessing so many advantages, would impose upon a set of good-natured spendthrifts, when they were not in a condition to correct the imposition, by charging two bottles instead of one. But this is a digression from my subject—I will resume it in my next number.

ANECDOTE OF G. A. STEVENS.

Mr. G. A. Stevens being once with an itinerant company at Lynn, in Norfolk, had to perform the part of Lorenzo in the Merchant of Venice; but having, previous to this, played several nights to empty benches, had much neglected the study of his part for that evening; however, he bustled through it tolerably well till he came to the last act, where he should have said to Jessica,

'*In such a night as this Leander swam the Hellespont,*
'*And brav'd the winds and waves for Hero's sake, &c.*

Instead of which he began thus:

Oh! Jessica, on such a night as this, the man
Swam over the water, and—he duck'd and he div'd,
And he div'd and he duck'd—and he got to the other side,
And there he met with his sweetheart, and she met him,
And then you know they met each other.

There was no standing this—the audience smoked the business, and an universal hiss was the consequence. Stevens, highly nettled at this, resolving to leave the town in a blaze, took Jessica by the hand, and leading her forward, addressed the audience thus:

Oh! Jessica, on such a night as this we came to town,
And since that night we've touch'd but half a crown;
Let you and I then bid these folks good night,
For if we stay——damme, they'll starve us quite.

Poetry.

For the Gleaner.

THE BENEVOLENT COTTAGER.

WHILE learned poets in heroic verse,
To tell of warriors and their deeds are fain;
Pray hear an humble unskill'd bard rehearse,
The moral virtues of a cottage swain.

Near where the Susquehanna's northern floods,
Roll thro' the long contested *Yankee* claim,
In a small vale, immur'd by hills and woods,
Where late the savage tribe pursu'd their game;

Blest in a frugal, kind and virtuous wife,
Who knew her duty, nor her hours misspent;
Remote from cities, noise and bustling life,
Secure from pride he liv'd, and liv'd content.

The sprightliest poet in a fancied dream,
Could never feign a more sequester'd spot;
Thro' a small meadow ran a gurgling stream,
Hard by was plac'd the peasant's humble cot.

The neighbouring hills his gen'rous herds supplied,
In summer season, with sufficient feed;
Their owner's care, their winter's stores, provide,
From the spontaneous produce of the mead.

Prepar'd his labours to renew at morn,
The plough to guide or grubbing-axe to wield,
At eve serenity his brows adorn,
As whistling, home he trudges, from the field:

There conjugal felicity he finds,
And home made pleasing by his helpmate's smile,
No jaring discords discompose their minds,
But love and peace the ev'ning hours beguile.

Both utter strangers to luxurious pride,
Content had taught them that their wants were few,
For these their herds and well wrought fields provide,
And annual harvests annual stores renew.

The tender infant from its mother's breast,
The first and only offspring of their love,
The father, taking in his arms, caress'd
And for its welfare pray'd the pow'r above.

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And annual harvests annual stores renew.

The tender infant from its mother's breast,
The first and only offspring of their love,
The father, taking in his arms, caress'd
And for its welfare pray'd the pow'r above.

A grand idea of the great supreme,
The contemplation of *his* works had given;
At eve their last, at morn their earliest theme,
Was adoration of the pow'r of heaven.

The sun had sunk behind the western hills,
And sable night usurp'd the place of day,
In dread of fancied and existing ills,
A trav'ler sought his lost, mistaken way;

But sought in vain—the darkness of the night,
Increas'd by trees and brakes, thro' which he gropes,
Had hid the winding pathway from his sight,
And quite obscur'd the ling'ring ray of hopes.

Aloud he cried, nor were his cries in vain,
An house-dog's bark assail'd his list'ning ear;
The joyful sound reviv'd his hopes again,
Convinc'd some human dwelling must be near:

The peasant too had heard the sound of woe,
As resting in his hut from toil and care,
And issuing forth with eager steps, to know
From whom the sound proceeded, and from where,

A blazing pine knot in his hand he took:
The guiding light the strangers eyes perceiv'd,
And dread of savage beasts his mind forsook,
As him the peasant cordially receiv'd.

But soon suspicion, vainer fears infus'd,
And now he dreaded more inhuman men;
Perhaps, thought he, this kindness is but us'd,
To lure a stranger to his murd'ring den.

Most silly thought! But shall we blame the youth?
In cities bred, where oft *deceit* we find,
Report had told him, and he thought it truth,
Such was the *gen'ral* practice of mankind.

Yet tho' there are who scorn religion's plan,
"Do unto others as thou'dst have them do;"
There are who grace it, and thus honour man,
And of the number not, perhaps, a few:

Such was the humble owner of the cot,
To which he took his weary trav'ling guest,
Who now his dangers and his fears forgot,
And having supp'd, retir'd to sleep and rest.

The morning rose and with the morn the swain,
The trav'ler too arose at dawn of day,
Prepar'd his journey to renew again,
First having, justly, call'd his bill to pay.

"I charge you nothing—naught will I receive,
My house is free to those who friendly call,
I cannot much, but what I can I give,
And as I've done to you, would do to all."

The stranger thank'd him, and with gen'rous heart,
Replied, "Your kindness shall remember'd be,
Should time some opportunity impart,
To do to you as you have done to me."

"And yet my friend tho' that cannot be done,
I go not much from home," the farmer said,
"*Return the kindness to some other one,*
And rest assur'd I am well pleas'd and paid."

Blush, worldlings blush! misanthropy, for shame!
"Most worthy man!" th' enraptur'd stranger cried,
"May I then know my benefactor's name?"
"*Seward* it is," the virtuous host replied.

And me, to sing, would some kind muse inspire,
With Homer's genius; or benignly give
Milton's sublimity or Virgil's fire,
His name forever in my song should live.

GRATITUDO.

THE WANDERER OF SWITZERLAND.

BY JAMES MONTGOMERY.

PART II.

After supper, the Wanderer, at the desire of his Host, relates the sorrows and sufferings of his Country during the invasion and conquest of it by the French, in connection with his own story.

Shep. "Wanderer! bow'd with griefs and years,
Wanderer, with the cheek so pale!
O give language to those tears;
Tell their melancholy tale."

Wand. "Stranger-friend, the tears that flow
Down the channels of this cheek,
Tell a mystery of woe,
Which no human tongue can speak.

Nor the pangs of "Hope deferr'd"
My tormented bosom tear:
—On the tomb of Hope interr'd,
Scowls the spectre of Despair.

—Where the Alpine summits rise,
Height o'er height stupendous hurl'd,
Like the pillars of the skies,
Like the ramparts of the world:

Born in Freedom's eagle nest,
Rock'd by whirlwinds in their rage,
Nurs'd at Freedom's stormy breast,
Liv'd my sires from age to age.

High o'er Underwalden's vale,
Where the forest fronts the moon;
Whence the boundless eye might sail
O'er a sea of mountains borne:

There my little native cot
Peep'd upon my father's farm:
—O it was a happy spot,
Rich in every rural charm!

There my life, a silent stream,
Glid along, yet seem'd at rest;
Lovely as an infant's dream
On the waking mother's breast.

Till the storm that wreck'd the world,
In its horrible career,
Into hopeless ruin hurl'd
All this aching heart held dear.

On the princely towers of Berne
Fell the Gallic thunder-stroke:
To the Lake of poor Lucerne,
All submitted to the yoke.

Reding then his standard raised,
Drew his sword on Brunnen's plain;*
But in vain his banner blazed,
Reding drew his sword in vain.

* *Brunnen, at the foot of the mountains, on the borders of the Lake of Uri, where the first Swiss Patriots,* Walter Furst, *of Uri,* Wurner Stauffacher, *of Schwitz, and* Arnold, *of Melchthal, in Underwalden, conspired against the tyranny of Austria, in* 1307, *again in* 1798 *became the seat of the Diet of these three forest Cantons.*

Where our conquering fathers died;
Where their awful bones repose;
Thrice the battle's fate he tried,
Thrice o'erthrew his country's foes.*

Happy then were those who fell,
Fighting on their father's graves!
Wretched those who liv'd to tell
Treachery made the victor's slaves.†

Thus my country's life retired,
Slowly driven from part to part;
Underwalden last expired,
Underwalden was the heart.‡

In the valley of their birth,
Where our guardian mountains stand,
In the eye of heaven and earth,
Met the warriors of our land.

Like their sires in olden time,
Arm'd they met in stern debate;
While in every breast sublime,
Glow'd the SPIRIT OF THE STATE.

Gallia's menace fired their blood;
With one heart and voice they rose;
Hand in hand the heros stood,
And defied their faithless foes.

* *On the plains of Mogarthen, where the Swiss gained their first decisive victory over the force of Austria, and thereby secured the independence of their country,* Aloys Reding, *at the head of the troops of the little Cantons, Uri, Schwitz and Underwalden, repeatedly repulsed the invading army of France.*

† *By the resistance of these small Cantons, the French General Schawembourg was compelled to respect their independence, and gave them a solemn pledge to that purport: but no sooner had they disarmed, on the faith of this engagement, than the enemy came suddenly upon them with an immense force, and with threats of extermination, compelled them to take the civic oath to the new constitution, imposed upon all Switzerland.*

‡ *The inhabitants of the lower valley of Underwalden alone resisted the French message, which required submission to the new constitution, and the immediate surrender,* alive or dead, *of nine of their leaders. When the demand, accompanied by a menace of destruction, was read in the Assembly of the District, all the men of the valley, fifteen hundred in number, took up arms, and devoted themselves to perish in the ruins of their country.*

Then to heaven, in calm despair,
As they turn'd the tearless eye,
By their country's wrongs they sware
With their country's rights to die.

ALBERT from the council came;—
(My poor daughter was his wife;
All the valley lov'd his name;
ALBERT was my staff of life!)

From the council-field he came;
All his noble visage burn'd;
At his look I caught the flame;
At his voice my youth return'd.

Fire from heaven my heart renew'd;
Vigour beat through every vein;
All the powers that age had hew'd,
Started into strength again.

Sudden from my couch I sprang,
Every limb to life restor'd;
With the bound my cottage rang,
As I snatch'd my father's sword.

This the weapon they did wield,
On Morgarthen's dreadful day;
And thro' Sempach's* iron field,
This the plough-share of their way.

Then, my Spouse! in vain thy fears
Strove my fury to restrain;
O my Daughter! all thy tears,
All thy children's, were in vain.

Quickly from our hastening foes,
ALBERT's active care remov'd,
Far amidst th' eternal snows,
These who lov'd us—these belov'd.†

* *At the battle of Sempach, the Austrians presented so impenetrable a front with their projected spears, that the Swiss were repeatedly compelled to retire from the attack, till a native of Underwalden, named* Arnold de Winkelried, *commending his family to his countrymen, sprang upon the enemy, and burying as many of their spears as he could grasp, in his body, made a breach in their line; the Swiss rushed in, and routed the Austrians with a terrible slaughter.*

† *Many of the Underwaldens, on the approach of the French army, removed their families and cattle among the higher Alps;*

Then our cottage we forsook;
Yet as down the steeps we pass'd,
Many an agonizing look
Homeward o'er the hills we cast.

Now we reach'd the nether glen,
Where in arms our brethren lay;
Thrice five hundred fearless men,
Men of adamant were they!

Nature's bulwarks, built by Time,
'Gainst Eternity to stand,
Mountains, terribly sublime,
Girt the camp on either hand:

Dim behind the valley brake
Into rocks that fled from view;
Fair in front the gleaming lake
Roll'd its waters bright and blue.

'Midst the hamlets of the dale,
Stantz,* with simple grandeur crown'd,
Seem'd the mother of the vale,
With her children scatter'd round.

'Midst the ruins of the dale,
Now she bows her hoary head,
Like the Widow of the vale
Weeping o'er her children dead.

Happier then had been her fate,
Ere she fell by such a foe,
Had an earthquake sunk her state,
Or the lightning laid her low!"

Shep. "Rather had the lightning's flash
Quick consum'd thy country's foe!
Rather had the earthquake's crash
Laid her perjur'd tyrants low!

Why did Justice not prevail?"
Wand. "Ah! it is not thus to be!"
Shep. "Man of grief! pursue thy tale
To the death of Liberty."

and themselves returned to join their brethren, who had encamped in their native valley, on the borders of the lake, and awaited the attack of the enemy.

* *The Capital of Underwalden.*

For the Gleaner.

ELEANOR.

WHERE the dark heaving billows do lash the lone shore
And rocks pendant frown o'er the deep boiling flood;
Where the loud howling winds through the caves dismal roar,
There high on a mount pensive Eleanor stood.

Her hair in disorder wild stream'd in the wind,
She gaz'd with sad eye o'er the wave's dashing foam—
She look'd for her Edwin, who left her behind,
In quest of wealth's glare o'er the ocean to roam.

As thither, one ev'ning, I bent my lone way,
I heard a sad voice breath along on the gale;
'Twas Eleanor's voice—in the moon's glim'ring ray
She wav'd her hand sadly, and mourn'd o'er her tale.

"Ah! Edwin, why linger so long on the deep,
"Why haste not to cheer the sad gloom of my mind;
"Alone on these wild shores in sorrow I weep,
"And chide the slow pace of the sail-swelling wind.

"Yet, ah! yonder crescent that mounts from the wave,
"How pale is its aspect!—how loud the sea's roar!
"How madly the billows around the rocks rave!
"And all seem to tell me, my Edwin's no more.

"The met'ors red gleam 'thwart the night's mirky skies,
"And wild beasts howl horror along the lone shore,
"Before my wild fancy grim spectres arise
"And all, all alas! tells—"Your Edwin's no more."

"Ye waves that come far from the wide wat'ry main,
"And brave with loud howlings yon bleak barren cliff,
"Ah, tell my fond heart that to you does complain,
"Ah, tell, does my dear belov'd Edwin yet live.

"He lives," kind Hope whispers—yet, ah, why remain
"So long on the ocean's wide weltering roar?
"He lives," Hope still whispers—yet hopes, ah, how vain;
"For all else informs me, "Your Edwin's no more."

EVANDER.

Register and Gazette.

REPORT

Of the Secretary of the Treasury on the subject of Public Roads and Canals; made in pursuance of a resolution, of the Senate of the United States, of March 2, 1807.

(Continued from page 96.)

Communications between the Atlantic Rivers, and the River St. Laurence and Great Lakes.

VESSELS ascend the river St. Laurence from the sea to Montreal. The river Sorel discharges at some distance below that town the waters of lake George and lake Champlain, which penetrate southwardly within the United States. From Montreal to lake Ontario, the ascent of the river St. Laurence is estimated at about 200 feet. From the eastern extremity of lake Ontario, an inland navigation for vessels of more than 100 tons burthen, is continued more than one thousand miles, through lakes Erie, St. Clair, and Huron, to the western and southern extremities of lake Michigan, without any other interruption than that of the falls and rapids of Niagara, between lake Erie and lake Ontario. The descent from fort Schlosser to Devil's hole, a distance of four miles, which includes the perpendicular falls of Niagara, has by correct measurement been ascertained at 375 feet. The whole fall from lake Erie to lake Ontario, is estimated at 450 feet, making the elevation of lake Erie above tide water, six hundred and fifty feet.

Lake Superior, the largest of those inland seas, communicates with the northern extremity of lake Huron, by the river and rapids of St. Mary's. The fall of these is not ascertained: but it is said that a small canal has been opened around the most difficult part, by the North West Fur company.

Five of the Atlantic rivers approach the waters of the St. Laurence; viz. The Penobscot, Kennebeck, Connecticut, the North, or Hudson river, and the Tioga branch of the Susquehanna. This last river will afford a useful communication with the rivers Seneca, and Genessee, which empty into lake Ontario. The length of the portage has not been precisely stated; and the general navigation of the Susquehanna has already been noticed. It may however be observed, that it is the only Atlantic river whose sources approach both the western waters, and those of the St. Laurence.

The three eastern rivers, afford convenient communications with the province of Lower Canada, but not with that extensive

inland navigation, which penetrates through the United States, within two hundred miles of the Mississippi. No statement has been received of any improvement having yet been made on the Penobscot, or Kennebeck; and a very imperfect account has been obtained of some short canals opened around the several falls of the river Connecticut. One at Bellow's falls, in the state of Vermont, has been particularly mentioned, and is the highest improvement on the river.

What is called the North river, is a narrow and long bay, which in its northwardly course from the harbour of New-York, breaks through, or turns all the mountains, affording a tide navigation for vessels of 80 tons to Albany and Troy, 160 miles above New-York. This peculiarity distinguishes the North river from all the other bays and rivers of the United States. The tide in no other ascends higher than the Granite Ridge, or comes within thirty miles of the Blue Ridge, or eastern chain of mountains. In the North river, it breaks through the Blue Ridge at West Point, and ascends above the eastern termination of the Catskill, or great western chain.

A few miles above Troy, and the head of the tide, the Hudson from the north, and the Mohawk from the west, unite their waters, and form the North river. The Hudson in its course upwards, approaches the waters of lake Champlain, and the Mohawk, those of lake Ontario.

I. Hudson and Champlain, or Northern Navigation.

A Company was incorporated several years ago by the state of New-York, for the purpose of opening this communication, and a survey taken by Mr. Weston, a copy of which has not yet been obtained. From collateral information, it appears that it was proposed to open a canal 12 miles long, with a lockage of 106 feet, from Waterford, at the confluence of the Hudson and Mohawk, to the upper end of the great falls of Stillwater. This was considered as the most difficult part of the whole route, and the expense estimated at 275,000 dollars. Another canal and lock would be necessary around the falls of fort Miller: but the remainder of the navigation up the Hudson to fort Edward, does not require any material improvement.

At some distance above fort Edward, it was intended to connect by a canal and locks, the Hudson with the *North* Wood creek, at fort Ann. The navigation down the creek to Skeensborough is used, but requires to be improved. At this place, where falls render another canal necessary, North Wood creek empties into the south bay of lake Champlain; and thence is a natural sloop navigation through the whole extent of the lake. The expense of the works from fort Edward to Skeensborough, had been estimated at 200,000 dollars.

The funds of the company were insufficient, and have, it is said, been expended without much permanent utility at Stillwater and Skeensborough.

The distance in a straight line from Waterford to Skeensborough is fifty miles; and the expense of opening a permanent boat navigation on a proper plan through the whole line, is from imperfect materials estimated at about 800,000 dollars. This communication would divert to a port of the United States the trade of one half of the state of Vermont, and of a part of that of New-York, which is now principally carried through the channel of the St. Laurence, and of the province of Canada.

II. Mohawk and Ontario, or Western Navigation.

A Company incorporated by the state of New-York, for the improvement of this navigation, has made considerable progress, and an accurate survey having been taken of the distances and levels of the greater part of the route, the result will in the first place be stated.

	DIST. *Miles.*	FALL. *Feet.*
From the tide water at Troy to Lansing mills on the Mohawk, is found the greatest impediment to the navigation of that river, consisting of the Cohoes falls, which are 70 feet perpendicular, and of a succession of other falls, which continue to the north river, - - - - - - - -	4 2-3	140
From Lansing mills up the Mohawk to Schenectady, the height of the river at the time when the survey was taken, prevented Mr. Weston from correctly ascertaining the levels. The fall for that distance is therefore estimated at - - - - - - - -	12 1-3	28 1-4
From Schenectady to the Little falls,	57 1-2	110 1-2
The Little falls, which before the improvements made by the company, interrupted altogether the navigation, - - - - -	3-4	42
From the Little falls to fort Stanwix, now Rome, - - - - - - - -	48	59 1-2
This is the head of the navigation, and the summit level between it and West Wood creek, a branch of lake Ontario, is 9 feet 3-4 above that part of the river Mohawk, where the navigation ceases, - - - - -	1 3-4	9 3-4
	125	390

The whole course of the Mohawk is therefore 125 miles in length, and the fall through that distance from the summit level to tide water is 390 feet.

	DIST. *Miles.*	FALL. *Feet.*
At the distance of one mile and three quarters is Wood creek, the bed of which is used to its entrance into lake Oneida, the distance along its meanders being 23 miles, but in the line in which a canal might be cut, only 14 miles, and the fall 60 feet, - - -	14	60
The Oneida forms a natural canal of twenty miles in length, and communicates by the Onondago and Oswego rivers with lake Ontario. The distance by water down those two rivers to Oswego, on lake Ontario, is 63 miles. The upper part of the navigation is generally good, but the last 12 miles from the Oswego falls, which are not passable, to lake Ontario, are a continued rapid. The fall from lake Oneida to lake Ontario has not been ascertained by actual measurement, but is estimated at 130 feet. From Rotterdam, on lake Oneida, to the mouth of Salmon creek on lake Ontario, a few miles east of Oswego, the distance is 22 miles; and the ground being favourable, it is expected that the line of canal would not exceed 26 miles,	20 26	 130
	60	190

The elevation of the summit level between the Mohawk and the waters of lake Ontario, being only 390 feet above the tide water at Troy, and 190 feet above lake Ontario, a canal navigation is practicable the whole distance. Whether this should be attempted for a sloop or boat navigation, must depend principally, if not altogether, on the supply of water. It is stated that the canal from the summit level to Troy, must necessarily follow the valley of the Mohawk, and perhaps occasionally enter and cross the river. Calculated for a boat navigation, the expense may be estimated as followeth:

Mr. Weston estimated the expense of a canal, from Lansing mills to tide water at Troy, around the Cohoes falls, at - - - - - - $250,000

The distance from the summit level to Lansing mills is 120 miles, and to lake Ontario, deducting

Carried forward, $250,000

Brought forward,	$250,000
the 20 miles occupied by lake Oneida, 40 miles, together 160 miles of canal, the digging of which at 8000 dollars a mile, is - - - - -	1,280,000
The fall from the summit level to Lansing mills is 250 feet, and to lake Ontario 190 feet, together 440 feet lockage, which will require 55 locks of eight feet lift each. These at 7,500 dollars, the cost of the stone locks erected by the company at the Little falls, will cost about - - - -	420,000
Feeder and aqueducts may be estimated at	250,000
Making altogether two millions two hundred thousand dollars, - - - - - -	2,200,000

It is not believed that a sloop navigation, if practicable, could be effected for a less sum than five millions of dollars. The following works have already been completed by the company:

At the Little falls a canal three quarters of a mile in length, has been opened, and a descent of 42 feet effected by six locks of solid masonry, each of which is 70 feet long, and 12 feet wide. At the German flats, four miles above the Little falls, another canal one mile in length, with two stone locks of the same materials and dimensions, effects a descent of ten feet.

On the summit level a canal one mile and three quarters in length, and supplied with water from the river Mohawk by a short feeder, unites that river and Wood creek, by means of two locks of the same dimensions and materials, one at each extremity of the canal. All those canals are 2 feet and a half deep, 24 wide at bottom, and 32 at top, and admit boats of ten tons. It is proper to state, that at first, wooden locks had been erected at the Little falls, and brick locks on the summit canal. At both places they had become totally unfit for service at the end of seven years, and it was necessary to replace them by stone locks; a circumstance which increased considerably the expense of the undertaking.

Several minor improvements have been made on the Mohawk; and the navigation of Wood creek, of which the principal defect is want of water, has been improved by raising dams, and by the erection of four temporary wooden locks. But until a canal shall have been opened the whole distance from the summit level to lake Oneida, the navigation will be imperfect, and the profits inconsiderable.

The funds of the company do not enable them to undertake the necessary improvements at the two extremities of the line, a canal around the Cohoes falls to tide water, and another canal from lake Oneida to lake Ontario. The usual portage at the first

place is from Schenectady to Albany; and a very good and expensive artificial road of 16 miles, made by another company, unites the two towns. Another company has lately been incorporated, for the purpose of making an artificial road at the other extremity of the line from Rotterdam, on lake Oneida, to Salmon creek on lake Ontario.

The capital of the company is 232,000 dollars, of which the state of New-York owns 92,000; but with the exception of one dividend of 3 per cent. all the tolls have been applied to the works; and including these and a debt of 20,000 dollars due by the company, the whole expenditure amounts to 370,000 dollars. The annual tolls do not yet exceed 13,000 dollars.

III. Niagara.

The fall from lake Erie to lake Ontario has already been stated at 450 feet. A company had also been incorporated by the state of New-York, for the purpose of opening a canal at this place: but it does not appear that any thing ever was attempted after the survey had been made. The intention seems to have been to open a canal navigation for boats only, from fort Schlosser to Devil's hole; the lake itself and Giles's creek would have supplied the water, and the expense was estimated at $437,000.

It is however evident that the canal, in order to be as eminently useful as the nature of the undertaking seems to require, should be on such scale as to admit vessels which can navigate both lakes. Considering the distance, which in that case must be extended to about ten miles, and the lockage of 450 feet, it is not believed that the expense can be estimated at less than 1,000,000 dollars.

The works necessary to effect water communications between the tide water of the North river, the St. Laurence, and all the lakes, (lake Superior only excepted) are therefore estimated at four millions of dollars, viz.

Northern navigation to lake Champlain, -	$ 800,000
Western navigation to lake Ontario, - -	2,200,000
Falls of Niagara for a sloop navigation, -	1,000,000
	$ 4,000000

The papers relative to those communications will be found under the letter (B.); but the utility of these will not be confined to the extensive navigation of the lakes themselves. For the mountains being completely turned, when arrived into lake Erie the ridge which separates the waters emptying into that and into lake Michigan, from the northern branches of the Ohio, and from the waters of the Mississippi, is of a moderate elevation, and is gradually depressed in its course westwardly. There is

no doubt of the practicability of opening canals at a future period, between several of those waters, either by selecting proper levels, or by means of short tunnels across favourable parts of the ridge. It will at present be sufficient to point out the principal communications now in use.

The distance from lake Erie to lake Chetoughe, an extensive and important elevated reservoir, which is the source of the Canowango branch of the Allegheny, is seven miles by a continual ascent, the elevation of which is not ascertained.

From Presqu' isle on lake Erie, to Le Bœuf on French creek, another branch of the Allegheny, the distance is sixteen miles, and a company is incorporated by the state of Pennsylvania, for making an artificial road across that portage.

The navigation from lake Chetoughe, and from Le Bœuf to Pittsburgh, offers no impediment whenever the waters are high; and the greater part of the salt now consumed in the north-west counties of Pennsylvania, as far as Pittsburgh, and some distance down the Ohio, is brought from the salt springs of New-York, by Oswego, through lake Ontario; then across the portage of Niagara to lake Erie, and thence by either of the two last mentioned portages to the waters of the river Allegheny.

The distance from the place where the Cayuga, a river emptying into lake Erie, ceases to be navigable, to the navigable waters of the Muskingum, which empties into the Ohio 170 miles below Pittsburgh, is only six miles; and a company is said to be formed for the improvement of that communication.

Sandusky river and the Scioto take their sources in the same swamp. The navigation of the Miami of lake Erie is interrupted by some falls; but its upper branches approach those of the Miami of the Ohio, and of the Wabash, and are stated as being nearly on the same level.

The Illinois river, which empties into the Mississippi above St. Louis, rises in a swamp, which when the waters are high, affords a natural canoe navigation to the sources of Chicago creek, a short stream, which falls into lake Michigan, at its southern extremity.

Another communication generally used by the Indian traders is that from Green bay, also in lake Michigan, to the Mississippi, by Fox river, and the Ouisconsing. Nor is there any doubt that if the inland navigation between the North river and the lakes was completely opened, the whole Indian trade, either of the Mississippi, by lake Michigan, or of the north-west, by lake Superior, must necessarily centre in an Atlantic port of the United States; a consideration of minor importance as a commercial object, when compared with the other advantages of that great communication, but of great weight in its relation to the political intercourse of the United States, with the Indians.

(To be continued.)

PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

WASHINGTON CITY, November 8.

This day, at 12 o'clock, the President of the United States communicated, by Mr. Coles, his Secretary, the following Message to both Houses of Congress.

TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES.

IT would have been a source, fellow-citizens, of much gratification, if our last communications from Europe had enabled me to inform you, that the belligerent nations, whose disregard of neutral rights has been so destructive to our commerce, had become awakened to the duty and true policy of revoking their unrighteous edicts. That no means might be omitted to produce this salutary effect, I lost no time in availing myself of the act authorizing a suspension, in whole or in part, of the several embargo laws. Our ministers at London and Paris were instructed to explain to the respective governments there, our disposition to exercise the authority in such manner as would withdraw the pretext on which the aggressions were originally founded, and open the way for a renewal of that commercial intercourse which it was alledged on all sides had been reluctantly obstructed. As each of those governments had pledged its readiness to concur in renouncing a measure which reached its adversary through the incontestable rights of neutrals only, and as the measure had been assumed by each as a retaliation for an asserted acquiescence in the aggressions of the other, it was reasonably expected that the occasion would have been seized by both for evincing the sincerity of their professions, and for restoring to the commerce of the United States, its legitimate freedom. The instructions to our ministers with respect to the different belligerents were necessarily moduled with a reference to their different circumstances, and to the condition annexed by law to the executive power of suspension requiring a degree of security to our commerce which would not result from a repeal of the decrees of France. Instead of a pledge therefore of a suspension of the embargo as to her in case of such repeal, it was presumed that a sufficient inducement might be found in other considerations, and particularly in the change produced by a compliance with our just demands by one belligerent, and refused by the other, in relations between this other and the United States. To Great Britain, whose power on the ocean is so ascendant, it was deemed not inconsistent with that condition, to state explicitly that on her rescinding her orders in relation to the

United States their trade would be opened with her, and remain shut to her enemy in case of his failure to rescind his decrees also. From France no answer has been received, nor any indication that the requisite change in her decrees is contemplated. The favourable reception of the proposition to Great Britain was the less to be doubted, as her orders of council had not only been referred for their vindication to an acquiescence on the part of the United States no longer to be pretended, but as the arrangement proposed, whilst it resisted the illegal decrees of France, involved moreover substantially, the precise advantages professedly aimed at by the British orders. The arrangement has nevertheless been rejected.

This candid and liberal experiment having thus failed, and no other event having occurred on which a suspension of the embargo by the executive was authorized, it necessarily remains in the extent originally given to it. We have the satisfaction, however, to reflect that in return for the privations imposed by the measure, and which our fellow citizens in general have borne with patriotism, it has had the important effects of saving our mariners and our vast mercantile property, as well as of affording time for prosecuting the defensive and provisional measures called for by the occasion. It has demonstrated to foreign nations the moderation and firmness which govern our councils, and to our citizens the necessity of uniting in support of the laws and the rights of their country; and has thus long frustrated those usurpations and spoliations which, if resisted, involved war, if submitted to, sacrificed a vital principle of our national independence.

Under a continuance of the belligerent measures, which in defiance of laws which consecrate the rights of neutrals overspread the ocean with danger, it will rest with the wisdom of Congress to decide on the course best adapted to such a state of things; and bringing with them, as they do, from every part of the union, the sentiments of our constituents, my confidence is strengthened that in forming this decision, they will, with an unerring regard to the essential rights and interests of the nation, weigh and compare the painful alternatives out of which a choice is to be made:—Nor should I do justice to the virtues which on other occasions have marked the character of our fellow citizens, if I did not cherish an equal confidence, that the alternative chosen, whatever it may be, will be maintained with all the fortitude and patriotism which the crisis ought to inspire.

The documents containing the correspondence on the subject of the foreign edicts against our commerce, with the instructions given to our ministers at London and Paris, are now laid before you.

The communication made to Congress at their last session explained the posture in which the close of the discussions relative

to the attack by a British ship of war on the frigate Chesapeake, left a subject on which the nation had manifested so honourable a sensibility. Every view of what had passed authorized a belief that immediate steps would be taken by the British government for redressing a wrong, which, the more it was investigated, appeared the more clearly to require what had not been provided for in the special mission. It is found that no steps have been taken for the purpose. On the contrary it will be seen in the documents laid before you, that the inadmissable preliminary, which obstructed the adjustment, is still adhered to; and moreover, that it is now brought into connection with the distinct and irrelative case of the orders in council. The instructions which had been given to our minister at London, with a view to facilitate, if necessary, the reparation claimed by the United States, are included in the documents communicated.

Our relations with the other powers of Europe have undergone no material changes since your last session. The important negociations with Spain, which had been alternately suspended and resumed, necessarily experience a pause, under the extraordinary and interesting crisis which distinguishes her internal situation.

With the Barbary powers we continue in harmony, with the exception of an unjustifiable proceeding of the Dey of Algiers towards our consul to that regency. Its character and circumstances are now laid before you, and will enable you to decide how far it may either now or hereafter call for any measures not within the limits of the executive authority.

With our Indian neighbours the public peace has been steadily maintained.—Some instances of individual wrong have, as at other times, taken place, but in nowise implicating the will of the nation. Beyond the Mississippi, the Ioways, the Sacs, and the Alibamas, have delivered up for trial and punishment individuals from among themselves, accused of murdering citizens of the United States. On this side the Mississippi the Creeks are exerting themselves to arrest offenders of the same kind, and the Choctaws have manifested their readiness and desire for amicable and just arrangements respecting depredations committed by disorderly persons of their tribe. And generally, from a conviction that we consider them as a part of ourselves, and cherish with sincerity their rights and interests, the attachment of the Indian tribes is gaining strength daily, is extending from the nearer to the more remote, and will amply requite us for the justice and friendship practised towards them. Husbandry and household manufacture are advancing among them, more rapidly with the southern than northern tribes from circumstances of soil and climate, and one of the two great divisions of the Cherokee nation have now under consideration to solicit the citizenship of the United States, and to be identified with us in laws and government in such progressive manner as we shall think best.

In consequence of the appropriations of the last session of Congress for the security of our seaport towns and harbours, such works of defence have been erected as seemed to be called for by the situation of the several places, their relative importance, and the scale of expense indicated by the amount of the appropriation. These works will chiefly be finished in the course of the present season, except at New-York and New-Orleans, where most was to be done: and although a great proportion of the last appropriation has been expended on the former place, yet some further views will be submitted to Congress for rendering its security entirely adequate against naval enterprize. A view of what has

been done at the several places, and of what is proposed to be done, shall be communicated as soon as the several reports are received.

Of the gun boats authorized by the act of December last, it has been thought necessary to build only one hundred and three in the present year. These, with those before possessed, are sufficient for the harbours and waters most exposed, and the residue will require little time for their construction when it shall be deemed necessary.

Under the act of the last session for raising an additional military force, so many officers were immediately appointed as were necessary for carrying on the business of recruiting, and in proportion as it advanced, others have been added. We have reason to believe their success has been satisfactory, although such returns have not yet been received as enable me to present you a statement of the numbers engaged.

I have not thought it necessary, in the course of the last season to call for any general detachments of militia or of volunteers, under the laws passed for that purpose. For the ensuing season however they will be required to be in readiness, should their service be wanted. Some small and special detachments have been necessary to maintain the laws of embargo, in that portion of our northern frontier which offered peculiar facilities for evasion. But these were replaced as soon as it could be done by bodies of new recruits. By the aid of these, and of the armed vessels called into service in other quarters, the spirit of disobedience and abuse, which manifested itself early and with sensible effect while we were unprepared to meet it, has been considerably repressed.

Considering the extraordinary character of the times in which we live, our attention should unremittingly be fixed on the safety of our country. For a people who are free, and who mean to remain so, a well organized and armed militia is their best security. It is therefore incumbent on us, at every meeting, to revise the condition of the militia, and to ask ourselves if it is prepared to repel a powerful enemy at every point of our territories exposed to invasion? Some of the states have paid a laudable attention to this object: but every degree of neglect is to be found among others. Congress alone having the power to produce an uniform state of preparation in this great organ of defence; the interest which they so deeply feel in their own and their country's security will present this as among the most important objects of their deliberation.

Under the acts of March 11, and April 23, respecting arms, the difficulty of procuring them from abroad during the present situation and disposition of Europe, induced us to direct our whole efforts to the means of internal supply. The public factories have therefore been enlarged, additional machineries erected and in proportion as artificers can be found or formed, their effect, already more than doubled, may be increased, so as to keep pace with the yearly increase of the militia. The annual sums appropriated by the latter act have been directed to the encouragement of private factories of arms, and contracts have been entered into with individual undertakers to nearly the amount of the first year's appropriation.

The suspension of our foreign commerce, produced by the injustice of the belligerent powers, and the consequent losses and sacrifices of our citizens, are subjects of just concern. The situation into which we have been forced has impelled us to apply a portion of our industry and capital to internal manufactures and improvements. The extent of this conversion is daily increasing, and little doubt remains that the establishments formed and forming, will, under the auspices of cheaper materi-

als and subsistence, the freedom of labour from taxation with us, and of protecting duties and prohibitions, become permanent. The commerce with the Indians too, within our own boundaries, is likely to receive abundant aliment from the same internal source, and will secure to them peace and the progress of civilization undisturbed by practices hostile to both.

The accounts of the receipts and expenditures during the year ending on the thirtieth day of September last, being not yet made up, a correct statement will hereafter be transmitted from the treasury. In the mean time it is ascertained that the receipts have amounted to near eighteen millions of dollars, which with the eight millions and an half in the treasury at the beginning of the year, have enabled us after meeting the current demands, and interest incurred, to pay two millions three hundred thousand dollars of the principal of our funded debt, and left us in the treasury on that day near fourteen millions of dollars. Of these five millions three hundred and fifty thousand dollars will be necessary to pay what will be due on the first day of January next, which will complete the reimbursement of the eight per-cent stock. These payments, with those made in the six years and an half preceding, will have extinguished thirty-three millions five hundred and eighty thousand dollars of the principal of the funded debt, being the whole which could be paid or purchased within the limits of the law and of our contracts, and the amount of principal thus discharged will have liberated the revenue from about two millions of dollars of interest, and added that sum annually to the disposable surplus. The probable accumulation of the surplusses of revenue beyond what can be applied to the payment of the public debt, whenever the freedom and safety of our commerce shall be restored, merits the consideration of Congress. Shall it lie unproductive in the public vaults? Shall the revenue be reduced? or shall it not rather be appropriated to the improvements of roads, canals, rivers, education, and other great foundations of prosperity and union, under the powers which Congress may already possess or such amendment of the constitution as may be approved by the states? While uncertain of the course of things the time may be advantageously employed in obtaining the powers necessary for a system of improvement, should that be thought best.

Availing myself of this, the last occasion which will occur of addressing the two Houses of Legislature at their meeting, I cannot omit the expression of my sincere gratitude, for the repeated proofs of confidence manifested to me, by themselves and their predecessors since my call to the administration, and the many indulgencies experienced at their hands. The same grateful acknowledgments are due to my fellow citizens generally, whose support has been my great encouragement under all embarrassments. In the transaction of their business I cannot have escaped error. It is incident to our imperfect nature. But I may say with truth, my errors have been of the understanding, not of intention, and that the advancement of their rights and interests has been the constant motive for every measure. On these considerations I solicit their indulgence. Looking forward with anxiety to their future destinies, I trust that in their steady character, unshaken by difficulties, in their love of liberty, obedience to law, and support of the public authorities, I see a sure guarantee of the permanence of our republic; and retiring from the charge of their affairs, I carry with me the consolation of a firm persuasion that heaven has in store for our beloved country, long ages to come of prosperity and happiness. TH: JEFFERSON.

November 8, 1808.